

Biomass Torrefaction for Renewable Energy: From Physicochemical, Bulk Properties, and Flowability to Future Perspectives and Applications

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ABSTRACT

Biomass and biomass wastes can be a source of renewable energy and fuels through valorization 18 in thermochemical processes. Torrefaction is a thermal pre-treatment often employed for 19 upgrading raw biomass. In addition to providing the status of current techniques used to 20 characterize raw and torrefied biomasses (in terms of their flowability and physicochemical, 21 22 thermal, and bulk properties), we comment on current applications with these bulk solids. The limitations of current characterization methods are also discussed with a view to future scopes 23 with advanced techniques, particularly related to physicochemical properties. This review 24 underscores a lack of systematic studies focused on the importance of comprehensive 25 26 knowledge of raw and torrefied biomass properties to achieve better flowability, thereby contributing to more efficient and cost-effective industrial processes. Indeed, among the 1320 27 literature papers evaluated in this review, 647 characterized the chemical/thermal properties of 28 raw and torrefied biomasses, while 254 considered physical/bulk properties, and only 11 29 30 assessed bulk solids' flowability. The scarcity of studies on flowability suggests that this 31 parameter has not been considered important by most researchers for the demonstration of process feasibility. However, characterizing bulk solids flow behavior is critical for the proper 32 33 design of handling equipment and ensuring smooth plant operation, thus minimizing risks associated with unforeseen expenses and prolonged time for process troubleshooting and 34 equipment retrofit. Moreover, even when the flowability was measured in the 11 papers, it was 35 difficult to compare results between studies as measurement techniques were not the same, nor 36 were the biomass type or torrefaction conditions. This highlights the need for future research 37 on the flowability of raw and torrefied biomass, intending to obtain more sound and broad 38 conclusions for the flow behavior of such heterogeneous materials, culminating in the 39 development of standardized protocols to improve biomass handling and processing at an 40 industrial scale. Besides, most of the studies available in the literature were based on small-41 bench torrefaction units, producing only a few grams of torrefied biomass. This is generally a 42 43 limiting amount of material for complete assessment of flowability at different bulk conditions, as well as to evaluate other important handling aspects at industrial scale, such as bulk solid 44 segregation, quality of fluidization, and so on. In future works, we also suggest evaluating other 45 heterogeneous feedstocks, such as municipal wastes or refuse-derived fuels, and performing a 46 complete characterization for the bulk solids to facilitate technical decision-making in 47 bioenergy and biofuels processes. 48

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50 Keywords: Biochar, pyrolysis, powder handling, Hausner ratio, angle of repose, shear cell,

51 fluidization.

52 **1 Introduction**

The expansion of agricultural production and industrial processing can lead to an increase in organic waste generation. In such a scenario, the valorization of biomass resources can contribute to a circular economy by considering biomass's potential reuse or processing from several feedstocks, including wood and forestry wastes, organic wastes, and agricultural residues. The demand for sustainable energy solutions has directed significant research attention towards biochar or torrefied biomass, a carbon-rich material produced from biomass through processes like torrefaction.^{1–4}

Biomass residues are sustainable resources with large availability and easy access. However, its use in raw form for thermochemical conversion processes is generally compromised due to issues related to bulk solids handling and reduced energetic efficiency.⁵ This is a consequence of raw biomass properties, consisting of low bulk density, high moisture content, reduced flowability, low calorific value, low energy yield, and high power consumption for grinding. To make biomass profitable for large-scale operations, a pretreatment step such as torrefaction is often necessary.

Figure 1 presents a simplified diagram describing dry biomass torrefaction. This partial thermal conversion occurs for mild temperatures (generally within 200°C and 300°C), in the absence of any oxidizing agents, and leads to the formation of three main products: volatile matters either (i) condensable (steam and primary tars) or (ii) non-condensable (mainly CO and CO₂) and (iii) a solid brown to dark residue called torrefied biomass. Note that other treatments employing either "wet" or "steam" atmospheres can be also classified as torrefaction to obtain an upgraded solid fuel, as described elsewhere^{6,7}.



Figure 1. Diagram of dry biomass torrefaction.

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Industrially, two types of technology exist for dry biomass torrefaction according to the heating method⁸. In the first type, the heat can be supplied to the reactor by direct contact between hot inert gas and solids. This process mainly includes rotary drums, fluidized bed reactors, and multiple hearth furnaces. In the second type, the heat can be applied indirectly to the oven, by circulating, for instance, through a jacketed reactor. This process mainly includes screw reactors and rotary drums.

The torrefaction severity (or degree of torrefaction) is often characterized by the solid 83 84 mass yield on a dry basis also called Anhydrous Weight Loss (AWL). For a given torrefaction technology and particle size, it mainly depends on two operating conditions: the temperature 85 and the solid residence time. Indeed, a rise in these two parameters increases the degree of 86 torrefaction which leads to the formation of a browner and darker torrefied solid. For instance, 87 a typical mass yield for biomass torrefaction is 70% corresponding to an AWL of 30%.^{9,10} 88 89 According to the AWL value, it is then possible to i) significantly decrease the required energy for grinding since the higher the AWL, the lower the energy required for grinding^{11,12}; ii) 90 enhance fluidization and flowability characteristics due to the improvement of particle size and 91 morphology, leading to more efficient handling operations;¹⁰ iii) produce a hydrophobic solid 92 with a low moisture content leading to long storage capacity¹³; iv) increase the biomass 93 durability, which decreases the biological conversion and leads to less decomposition risks; 8 v) 94

95 increase the energy density with lower H/C and O/C ratios as the heating value is also increased
96 to approach that of coal^{2,14}.

Physical and chemical properties of torrefied biomass play a crucial role in determining 97 its suitability for many applications. For instance, the versatility of torrefied biomass extends 98 to energy applications, where it serves as a bridge between biomass and high-value products. 99 In energy conversion, the high carbon content and stability of torrefied biomass make it a 100 valuable precursor for producing activated carbon and other carbon-based materials. Its 101 potential in energy storage is highlighted by its application in supercapacitors and batteries, 102 where its porous structure and high conductivity are advantageous. Furthermore, the torrefied 103 104 biomass can be used as a fuel, either as a direct combustion fuel or as a feedstock for producing 105 syngas, biofuels, and bio-oil through gasification and pyrolysis.

Bulk and flowability characteristics of torrefied biomass are key for continuous operation 106 and process yield. According to Dai et al.,15 feeding waste biomass powders into 107 thermochemical reactors is commonly the most problematic operation of the entire reactor 108 system, because of blockages of pipes, feeding devices, and silo outlets. Issues arising from 109 poor powder flowability can occur under a range of flow and stress conditions. For example, 110 powder storage and discharge from silos often involves a quasi-static consolidated 111 112 configuration for the powders, and common flow issues consist of irregularity and interruption of the flow of powders, rathole formation in funnel flow that can induce cross-contamination 113 and rotting of material accumulated in the silo, slip-stick flow that can endanger the silo, etc. 114 115 In contrast, processes such as fluidization and pneumatic transport involve a more dynamic and loose packing condition¹⁶, for which typical flow issues consist of blockage of pipelines, 116 117 segregation and elutriation of finer particles, cross-contamination and rotting of accumulated material, etc. Therefore, different flowability methods and indices have been developed over 118 the years to assess the flow behavior of a powder under different conditions of particle's 119

concentration, particle's relative movement, and their interaction with the system's boundaries 120 (*i.e.*, if free-surface or confined systems). A complete discussion in this sense is provided in 121 Section 3.3.1. Nevertheless, flowability data is key for the proper design of plant equipment 122 (e.g., silos, solid feeders, mechanical/pneumatic transfer lines, etc.) and can be useful to ensure 123 smooth plant operation (*i.e.*, by monitoring flowability during operation as a quality parameter 124 to avoid flow instabilities and equipment blockage if bulk solid properties change), avoiding 125 unforeseen expenses and prolonged time for process troubleshooting and equipment retrofit. 126 However, these flowability properties are often mistakenly overlooked in research publications, 127 as if they were not necessary for demonstrating process feasibility. 128

129 Thus, this review paper aims to systematically evaluate the current state-of-the-art of 130 biomass torrefaction, with a focus on the methods used for the characterization of raw and torrefied particulates, while proposing new fields of work based on our findings for advancing 131 sustainable energy solutions. Also to provide the significance of understanding the complete 132 properties of bulk materials, including their physical, chemical, thermal, bulk, flowability, and 133 fluidization characteristics. There are currently some reviews on the physical and chemical 134 characterizations of raw and torrefied biomass^{9,13,17,18}; however, none focused on the 135 characterization of flowability which is investigated in depth in our paper. The absence of 136 137 comprehensive reviews on flowability is a critical knowledge gap that must be addressed, intending to guide future work that could lead to more efficient handling of biomass/biomass 138 waste, reduce waste, and improve industrial processing methods. In this paper, the discussion 139 140 is structured to cover several aspects of biomass torrefaction, as follows:

The methodology used in this systematic review is presented in Section 2 and used in
Section 3.1 to obtain quantitative information on the number of papers published,
types of biomasses considered, and number of papers that investigated raw/torrefied

- biomass characterization based on i) chemical & thermal properties, ii) physical &
 bulk properties, and iii) flowability & fluidization properties.
- In Section 3.2, we describe briefly the current methods used for the physicochemical
 characterization of raw and torrefied biomasses, while proposing other advanced
 techniques for future work to fill some knowledge gaps.
- In Section 3.3, we present an in-depth analysis of the flowability and fluidization of
 raw and torrefied biomasses, which is the core focus of our work. Flowability methods
 are critically reviewed and key information about torrefaction conditions and
 flowability data are extracted from the literature papers. The data is further grouped
 for visualization and critically analyzed on which methods and biomass types are most
 used, most productive countries, etc. Finally, we suggest future work to fill knowledge
 gaps on flowability and fluidization linked to biomass torrefaction.
- In Section 3.4, we describe the main applications with torrefied biomass extracted
 from the literature along with potential future trends.
- In Section 4, we propose final considerations on current and future literature, based
 on the critical analysis provided in this article and our findings.
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161 2 Systematic review methodology

The systematic review consisted of three stages and followed the PRISMA protocol (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses),¹⁹ considering the Scopus and Web of Science databases. As authors in the literature adopt different nomenclatures for the biomass after the torrefaction process, the chosen search string was "('biochar' OR 'biocoal' OR 'torrefied biomass') AND 'torrefaction'." The research included documents in English, and it was current as of March 20th, 2024. In the first stage, documents from both databases were retrieved, and duplicates were removed. The gathered information included title, publication year, authors, affiliation, and keywords. For each database, cooccurrence clusters (network visualization) were prepared in VOSviewer® software (version
1.6.19) with the keywords of the selected articles.

In the second stage, there was a selection of papers within the scope of our research that 172 focused on biomass torrefaction, including some wastes that contain biomass, such as municipal 173 solid wastes, refuse-derived fuels, or solid recovered fuel. It was considered as out of scope 174 non-experimental research such as reviews and simulations as they do not provide new 175 information about bulk solid properties or characterization methods. For the selected papers, 176 we retrieved information regarding the type of biomass used for torrefaction to provide an 177 178 overview of the most studied feedstocks and their relevance in the context of a circular 179 economy. The remaining papers underwent individual qualitative analysis, categorizing them as "yes", "limited", or "no" based on the availability of information about the physical, 180 chemical, and flowability characteristics of raw and torrefied biomass. Basic chemical 181 characterization should include proximate analysis, such as moisture, volatile matter, fixed 182 carbon, and ash contents, and ultimate analysis, involving the contents of carbon, hydrogen, 183 oxygen, nitrogen, sulfur, and other elemental compositions. In addition, the provision of 184 thermal characteristics should also be considered, such as mass and energy yields and heating 185 186 values. Physical and bulk characteristics involve particle size distribution, true and bulk density, porosity, specific surface area, and morphological features, such as shape observed through 187 techniques such as scanning electron microscopy (SEM). Flowability characteristics include 188 189 static and dynamic angle of repose, Hausner ratio, Carr index, and flow function measured via rheometers. Additionally, information on fluidization curves and permeability was also 190 considered. 191

In the third stage, we focused on studies that have conducted experimental approaches todetermine flowability characteristics. Additionally, we included studies from other reviews or

those cited within the selected papers that were relevant to our research scope but were not 194 retrieved in our systematic process. Flowability assessment of blends between torrefied biomass 195 and pulverized coal for co-processing operations was considered out of the scope of this review 196 paper, particularly if the flowability characterization was not performed for the raw biomass. 197 Some interesting papers on this subject can be found elsewhere.^{20–22} For the final selection of 198 papers, we have provided information on the flowability or fluidization of torrefied biomass, 199 discussed their main characteristics and critically reviewed these studies. Finally, we explored 200 current applications of torrefied biomass and future perspectives, offering suggestions for future 201 research. 202

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204 **3 Results and Discussion**

205 3.1 Results of systematic review

Figure 2 presents a summary of the systematic review process and the selection of papers 206 for each stage. In the first stage, 2054 documents were retrieved, with 1143 from Web of 207 208 Science and 911 from Scopus. Figures S1 and S2 (Supplementary Information) present the cooccurrence clusters with the keywords and affiliations of the selected articles from each 209 database. After removing duplicates, 1320 documents remained. In the second stage, 695 210 211 documents were selected based on our eligibility criteria. Considering the number of publications per year, we observed an increasing trend, which aligns with the emerging interest 212 in this field of study. For instance, most papers (58%) were published in the last five years (74 213 in 2019, 82 in 2020, 85 in 2021, 95 in 2022, and 77 in 2023). Most papers presented complete 214 chemical characteristics of the torrefied biomass (62%) compared to those that presented 215 physical characterization (8%). More than half of the papers (63%) did not provide sufficient 216 physical and bulk characteristics of the torrefied biomass, which is a limitation for the 217

predictability and optimization of industrial operations with these materials. Additionally, the
different characterizations provided in each research challenge the comparison across studies.
A brief overview of the chemical and physical characterization is presented in Section 3.2.
Finally, the systematic approach retrieved 9 papers that assessed the flowability or fluidization
of raw and torrefied biomass. Additionally, 4 documents were found either within the selected
paper's bibliography or in other reviews. Therefore, 13 studies were selected and critically
discussed in Section 3.3.



225 226 227

Figure 2. Systematic review summary: The search process and selection of the studies focused on the flowability of fluidization of raw and torrefied biomass.

From all papers selected in the second stage (n = 695), wood-derived biomass was 228 identified as the most common feedstock for torrefaction (n = 326). These papers reported the 229 repurposing of wood chips, pellets, sawdust, shavings, and stems. Some studies compared the 230 biomass torrefaction of softwood (e.g., pinewood) and hardwood (e.g., teakwood).²³ 231 Additionally, other studies reused waste wood from furniture manufacturing as a recycling 232 alternative.²⁴ Several factors explain the predominance of studies on wood, including its 233 234 abundance and availability, high energy density, and homogeneous composition. Several varieties of grasses and herbaceous plants were notable among the studies (n = 67), including 235 pruning and weeding residues, with *Miscanthus* spp. standing out (n = 11). 236

237 Agro-industrial residues constitute a significant group in the selection of feedstocks for 238 biomass torrefaction, contributing to a circular economy through waste minimization and the repurposing of by-products from industrial processes.²⁵ Rice residues, including husks and 239 straws, are extensively studied (n = 65), followed by corn stalks, stover, straw, and corncob (n240 = 55), and wheat straw (n = 30). These feedstocks are among the three largest cereal crops 241 worldwide,²⁶ ensuring abundant residues available for biomass torrefaction. Sugarcane bagasse, 242 leaves, and straw (n = 28) also play a crucial role in enhancing the energy balance of agro-243 244 industries and supporting ethanol production. Additionally, residues such as shells and husks 245 from various nuts (e.g., almonds, coconuts, walnuts, hazelnuts, and peanuts) are studied (n =27). Other agricultural biomass includes oil palm trunk, kernel shells, mesocarp, and fronds (n 246 = 31); coffee residues such as spent grounds and husks (n = 23); cotton stalks (n = 14); olive 247 248 stones, cake, kernel, pomace, pips, and oil residue (n = 14); sunflower seeds, husks, and stalks (n = 10). Barley (n = 6), camellia (n = 6), oats (n = 4), canola (n = 3), cassava (n = 3), pigeon 249 250 pea (n = 3), and soybean (n = 3) residues have also been studied.

251 Specific organic wastes such as fruit peels, seeds, shells, and stones, along with empty 252 fruit bunches have been studied for biomass torrefaction (n = 18). Municipal solid waste, particularly its organic fraction, has been studied in 10 papers, and the torrefaction process can produce a high energy density solid fuel.²⁷ Sewage sludge (n = 18), microalgae (n = 20) such as *Chlorella vulgaris*, mushrooms (n = 7), refuse-derived fuels (n = 6), and textile waste (n = 4) are unconventional but efficient feedstocks for torrefaction. Poultry and chicken manure (n = 15), as well as cattle manure (n = 7), are livestock residues that have been studied for torrefaction. Additionally, 54 papers have explored other types of biomasses, including polyamide biocomposites, distillation residues, tea residues, among others.

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261 3.2 Chemical and physical characterization

During torrefaction, biomass undergoes several transformations, leading to some 262 chemical and physical modifications. First, the moisture is removed by the initial drying step 263 264 (up to 150°C), the second stage remains relatively stable within the temperature range of 137°C -181°C, to remove chemisorbed water, followed by chemical transformations of the 265 hemicellulose, cellulose and lignin for temperatures range of 180°C up to 580°C, and releasing 266 267 volatile compounds and solids. The produced torrefied biomass is an upgraded solid that is an alternative to fossil fuels²⁸ for energy storage and conversion systems.^{29,30} The torrefaction 268 process increases the calorific value of the biomass, resulting in a more efficient fuel. As the 269 torrefied biomass is easier to be ground into a fine powder, it could also be used as a pulverized 270 fuel. Torrefaction significantly enhances the physical and chemical properties of biomass, 271 transforming it into a more efficient and versatile fuel source. 272

Through detailed physical and chemical characterization, the quality and suitability of biomass torrefaction for various applications can be assessed and optimized, promoting its adoption in sustainable energy and industrial systems. While there is substantial literature on biomass characterization, this section focuses on presenting the techniques used for such characterization and provides a critical perspective on the existing gaps in information.

Although the chemical and thermal characterization are available in 647 papers 278 screened in this study, there are limited papers which present both chemical/thermal and 279 physical/bulk characterization. For this purpose, the systematic review procedure selected 58 280 papers that have analyzed the physical and bulk properties properly (Table S1), in which 36 281 papers (Table S2) include chemical and thermal characterization (see these tables in the 282 Supplementary Information). The objective of the next subsections is to describe the trends of 283 characterization methods used for torrefied biomass, in terms of chemical and thermal 284 properties (Section 3.2.1) as well as physical and bulk properties (Section 3.2.2). 285

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287 3.2.1 Chemical and thermal characterization of biomass and torrefied biomass

Chemical changes could be addressed by focusing on the changes in chemical 288 289 composition or/and structure. The proximate analysis involves determining the moisture, 290 volatile matter, fixed carbon, and ash content. The torrefied biomass may present a significant discrepancy in the proximate analysis results, considering the different methods, such as those 291 from the American Society for Testing and Materials (ASTM) and thermogravimetric analysis 292 (TGA), and the process parameters (e.g., heating rate, gas flow, temperature) used to obtain it. 293 The elemental composition related to carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen, sulfur, and oxygen 294 (CHNS/O) supports searching for elemental changes along the torrefaction process, such as the 295 amount of carbon which an increase is expected, enhancing the material's energy density^{6,7}. 296 297 The amount of CHNS/O may vary according to the source of biomass, and the ultimate analysis is important for understanding biomass thermochemical conversion. Although the chemical 298 characterization plays a role, the intrinsic nature and recalcitrance³¹ of the biomass leads to a 299 300 considerable variation for ultimate and proximate analyses (see Table S2). The values vary from biomass to biomass and even within the same type of biomass. Figure 3 addresses some 301

302 important information to illustrate the torrefied biomass composition and to highlight this

303 statement.



304



308 309 310 Figure 3. Proximate analysis of different biomass sources. (EU: Eucalyptus, WI: Willow, PI: Pine, CS: Corn Straw, MI: Miscanthus, AN: Acacia nilotica, OS: Olive stone, OH: Oat hull, CH: Canola hull, MM: Mustard meal, MI2: Miscanthus, CSH: Camellia shell, WC: Woodchips). (For reference see Table S2)^{32–37}

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The heating value of torrefied biomass is higher due to an increase in the carbon content and due to the reduction of moisture. This could be evidenced by the TGA in which the stability and decomposition are presented and defined by mass losses. TGA characterization can provide insights into the combustion and pyrolysis kinetics, moisture, biomass degradation, endo and exothermic reactions, ash content, which gives an overview of biomass behavior. The thermal analysis will help to define future applications with torrefied biomass.

319 Another important characterization is Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy analysis 320 (FTIR), which is used to identify changes in functional groups and chemical bonds, revealing the extent of thermal degradation and the formation of new compounds. Some physicochemical 321 characterization, such as X-ray-based (e.g., synchrotron-based scattering (SAXS), tomography, 322 Diffraction (XRD), Photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS), fluorescence (XRF), Computed 323 Tomography (CT), etc.), need to be better defined in the context of torrefied biomass.^{38–40} 324 Among the papers selected in this study (see Table S2), only five^{33,37,38,41,42} explored this type 325 of characterization to understand torrefied biomass. XRD provides a deep understanding of the 326 crystalline structure and can indicate the changes in the biomass's structural properties post-327 torrefaction. XRD is important to characterize the type of carbon obtained during the process 328 329 (e.g., graphite carbon atoms are arranged in layers, while graphene is only a single layer of carbon atoms).⁴³ Combining the XPS technique with Raman Spectroscopy, it could be possible 330 to provide information regarding the type of carbon chemical bonds (e.g., C=O, C-C, C-O) and 331 332 is possible to provide information about carbon defects, which could interfere with the energy technologies applications. A full understanding of carbon sites could facilitate its application in 333 the context of energy technologies.^{44,45} 334

Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR) has been used to provide detailed information about the local chemical environment of carbon atoms, including the types of carbon-carbon bonds, the presence of functional groups, and molecular structure⁴⁶. It can distinguish between different types of carbon atoms, such as sp², sp³, and hybridized carbons. However, this technique has some disadvantages as it requires relatively large sample amounts, and the analysis can be time-consuming. It is less effective for highly crystalline materials because it is more focused on the local environment rather than long-range order.

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343 3.2.2 Physical and bulk characterization of biomass and torrefied biomass

Knowledge about particle characteristics is important for the design of processes and helps further optimizations. In terms of properties, it is needed to investigate those related to a single particle, but also those that account for many particles and the voids within, known as bulk properties. Overall, raw and torrefied biomass and biomass wastes present considerable heterogeneity of particle and bulk properties, which is linked to different biomass types, nature and structure but also to bulk solids processing methods and process conditions.

From the systematic review, 58 papers were selected with an appropriate characterization 350 of physical and bulk properties (Figure 4). In these papers, the most investigated biomass for 351 torrefaction is woody-derived (n = 30), followed by agro-industrial residues (n = 23), 352 wastewater (n = 2) and algae (n = 1), respectively. It is worth noting that some researchers 353 354 evaluated the impact of torrefaction from distinct sources of biomass. For this reason, the total number of articles cited above exceeds the number of selected studies. Besides biomass 355 heterogeneity, the methods for biomass characterization are also a relevant factor that may lead 356 to some discrepancies in the measured properties values. For instance, 21 studies investigated 357 the particle size distribution (PSD) of raw and torrefied biomass, respectively. Among those, 358 18 studies assessed PSD by sieving out the particles and applying a gravimetric method while 359

fewer use laser diffraction (n = 2) and image analysis (n = 1). Different experimental procedures 360 may result in significant differences in particle size distribution, which makes comparison 361 between studies sometimes challenging. 362







Bulk density is also a critical property since it mainly impacts process storage and 368 handling. Within the selected papers in this study (n = 58), 27 papers estimated values for bulk 369 density for raw and/or torrefied biomass. 22 papers estimated values for loose bulk density and 370 371 3 papers estimate values for tapped bulk density. Moreover, only 2 papers estimated values for both loose and tapped bulk density. There is often a misunderstanding between the definition 372 373 and use of terms such as loose bulk density and tapped bulk density. The first one refers to the not compressed state, while the second one is the density of the material after it has been 374 compacted.^{47,48} Considering the heterogeneous particle size, the shape of the biomass and the 375 process conditions (e.g., pressure), clarifying this distinction is essential for handling it over 376 upstream and downstream processes. Loose and tapped bulk densities are also important for 377 estimating flowability parameters such as Hausner index and Carr's compressibility factor, 378 379 which are presented in the section 3.3.1.

Aligned with the discussion above, it is clear that bulk and physical properties should be assessed carefully, and the methods adopted to estimate these properties must be in line with the process phenomena. Bulk and particle properties affect flowability, which is an important parameter for efficient handling and storage of bulk solids in different applications, particularly for bioenergy and biofuels.

385

386 3.3 Flowability and fluidization characterization of biomass and torrefied biomass

From the systematic review procedure, a total of 13 papers were obtained to be critically 387 388 evaluated concerning the effect of torrefaction on biomass flowability characteristics (n = 11)and fluidization characteristics (n = 2). The most used feedstock consisted of wood-derived 389 biomass (n = 8) followed by agro-industrial residues (n = 4), and one single occurrence for 390 391 waste textile fiber. The fluidization papers were published from 2012 to 2013, whereas those 392 addressing the flowability characteristics were published more recently, from 2017 to 2023. With respect to flowability, the most productive countries were India and France with 4 393 394 occurrences each, followed by single occurrence papers from China, Mauritius, and Philippines. Interestingly, among these papers the affiliation of the authors sometimes varied but it was 395 always within the same country. Scientific collaborations with experts from different 396 backgrounds in different countries should be promoted in the future. Finally, all the occurrences 397 398 for the fluidization papers were from Brazil (n = 2) with one co-author from France in one 399 paper.

In the following subsections, the flowability methods (Section 3.3.1) and selected papers (Section 3.3.2) are critically reviewed, this latter in terms of main findings, torrefaction conditions, type of bulk solid and flowability results interpretation. The flowability data from all the papers are further grouped in Section 3.3.3 to discuss their trends and limitations. Finally, a similar assessment is done for the selected fluidization papers in Section 3.3.4.

405 *3.3.1* Definition of flowability and critical overview of current methods

406 By definition, a bulk solid is composed of solid particles and voids that are surrounded 407 by the environment or system boundary. The particles can have different physicochemical characteristics (e.g., various shapes, densities, sizes, chemical compositions, surface textures, 408 etc.), whereas the interstitial voids can be filled with different fluids of different densities and 409 410 viscosities. The environment or system boundary can have different arrangements, such as rigid or moving walls of different textures, freeboards in which the bulk solid can be in contact with 411 412 fluids, or even regions of different pressures and temperatures. From this rationale, it is clear that the environment impacts the bulk solids arrangement, and that its interaction combined 413 414 with the particularities of particles and voids characteristics, creates a complex system, which 415 is one of the reasons that developing a universal index to describe "flowability" is a challenging 416 task.

Bulk solid flowability can be defined as the likelihood of a particulate material to flow, 417 or in other words, as the potential for the particles to overcome the bulk inertia and have a 418 relative movement over other particles and its surroundings. There are different forces that 419 could prevent particles from moving, which can be of electrostatic origin, cohesive origin, or 420 even mechanical/interlocking⁴⁹. These have been well documented in the literature, although 421 direct measurement of these forces is still a challenge.^{50,51} Over the years, several indices were 422 proposed to assess, quantify, and discriminate the flowability of bulk solids, which have 423 different complexities but are fundamentally based on using a limited amount of material to 424 infer about the flow behavior of the bulk for a given process, generally at a much higher scale. 425 426 A critical review of current methods for flowability assessment is presented below.

427 Some classical methods involved the evaluation of flowability through simple powder 428 compaction tests, in which the degree of variation of the bulk density, between loose and 429 tapped/consolidated conditions, was used to indicate a better or worse flow behavior. In short,

powders that show a higher difference between these two conditions are classified with a worse 430 flowability, which is attributed to a higher intensity of electrostatic, cohesive, and/or 431 interlocking forces. The Hausner ratio (HR) is an index given by the ratio between 432 tapped/consolidated and loose conditions, whereas Carr's compressibility index (CCI) is given 433 by the standard difference between these variables.^{52,53} Powder compaction can be done by 434 vibration using automated or manual devices, for which the bed weight is the driven force for 435 bulk compaction, or even by using devices that impose consolidating pressures, in which there 436 is generally higher compaction of the powder bed. One important remark from these indices is 437 that they are measured under conditions of considerable high particle fraction, approaching 438 439 powders' packing limit; hence, the qualitative interpretation of the flowability might be 440 extrapolated, at best, to processes that undergo similar traits. Nonetheless, these indices are mostly known for their quick and easy measurement that can be useful for a qualitative 441 differentiation between samples, and not necessarily for direct extrapolation to process 442 conditions. Some interesting works on these indices are presented elsewhere, for example 443 through modeling of the compaction procedure and via assessment of the impact of particle size 444 distribution, moisture content, ambient humidity and temperature, and so on.^{47,54–60} 445

Another classical index is the static angle of repose (α), which can be measured by the 446 447 fixed height or fixed diameter methods. The bulk solid is discharged by gravity through a funnel to make a cone trunk on a flat or slightly concave surface. The literature rationale is that this 448 slope angle of the powder bed can be associated with higher or lower intensity of cohesion 449 450 forces. In short, a higher slope angle is an indication of worse flowability for the bulk solid. Some authors claim that this index can be correlated with particle properties or even 451 dimensionless numbers, while others show that the angle of repose is only useful to plan storage 452 in a pile for bulk solids or predict the inventory in silos.^{61,62} It is worth noting, however, that 453 this test is performed under free-discharge of powders and that the pile is formed under loose 454

bulk conditions without any applied consolidation; hence, any extrapolation of flowability information from this index should be done, at best, in such flowing conditions in the process. One of the main advantages of this index is that it can be measured quickly and easily and can give a first qualitative indication to discriminate the flowability of different samples, particularly those samples that have considerable differences from each other. Some interesting papers addressing the measurement of the angle of repose for bulk solids with different properties can be found elsewhere.^{48,62–65}

The flow function coefficient (FFC) is another index that has been used for evaluating the 462 flowability of bulk solids, which is defined as the ratio of the major consolidation stress to the 463 464 unconfined yield strength. These parameters can be obtained in shear cells, which are devices 465 where the bulk solid is subsequently consolidated and sheared to derive the flow function at each consolidation. As a consequence, the flowability indication can be evaluated at different 466 bulk solid conditions, corresponding to processes for which the bulk solids flow at 467 concentrations close to the packing limit and at different consolidation pressures. Note that this 468 is a different feature than the previous static angle of repose and compressibility indices, which 469 470 are measured for one condition generally at small bed weight consolidation. There are many different commercial implementations of shear cells, from the precursor Jenike shear cell to the 471 472 Schulze ring shear tester, Brookfield powder flow tester, Freeman FT4 rheometer, and so on. 473 These implementations have different pros and cons concerning the consolidation range, measurement speed, and degree of automatization. In general, the standard procedure of these 474 475 pieces of equipment leads to results with low variability under well-defined conditions (e.g., ASTM D6773-16).⁶⁶ Furthermore, the results of the shear cells allow not only for a qualitative 476 differentiation between the flow behavior of particulates but also provide valuable information 477 478 for the design of hoppers and silos since the cohesion, particle-particle, and particle-wall friction parameters can be obtained from the tests. The effect of environment conditions, and 479

480 particle properties on the flow function has been extensively investigated in the literature, 481 including the comparison between the flowability indications given among the different 482 commercial shear cells.^{67–73} Some authors also commented on the limitations of shear cells to 483 measure flow properties of elongated or fibers type of biomass materials that are highly 484 compressible and severely entangled, which hinders the formation of a well-defined shear zone 485 and the attainment of steady-state flow condition.^{74,75}

More recently, rotating drums coupled with image analysis have been used to evaluate 486 bulk solids flowability at dynamic conditions. According to some authors, this device measures 487 dynamic flowability and can be understood as a shear cell at low consolidating stresses.⁷⁶ The 488 particulate is introduced in a drum that is continuously rotated while different characteristics of 489 490 the flow can be evaluated, mostly related to powder bed angle and the flow irregularity. It is worth noting that depending on the drum rotating speed, different flow regimes can develop, 491 from unstable and intermittent to stable, cascading, cataracting, and avalanching modes, posing 492 more challenges for determination compared to the quasi-static indices (*i.e.*, α , HR, and FFC). 493 Furthermore, there is a greater interaction between fluid and bulk solids during the measurement 494 of this index, which can be challenging as the properties of solid and void fluid vary. For non-495 cohesive materials, the angle that the particulate material makes with the horizontal under stable 496 497 flow is commonly named the dynamic angle of repose (β). However, for cohesive materials like biomass, different parameters can be tracked between powder avalanches, such as the upper 498 and lower angle of stability, the frequency of avalanches, and so on.¹⁶ Generally, the higher the 499 dynamic angle of repose or angle of upper stability, the higher the interparticle frictional forces 500 in the powder, which is potentially an indication of worse flowability. The effect of bulk and 501 particle properties on the dynamic angle of repose has been evaluated in some works, however, 502 with considerably fewer data than shear cells.^{77–79} An indicative classification between powder 503

504 flowability as a function of dynamic angle or other dynamic quantities is still under 505 investigation.^{80,81}

From the rationale described in the previous paragraphs, the technique for flowability assessment should be evaluated with caution and, more importantly, the test should be in line with the actual process phenomenon under investigation, in which the bulk condition from the process should be well reproduced, using a limited amount of material, during flowability tests to allow for results interpretation and extrapolation at different scales.

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512 3.3.2 Description of selected papers for flowability

In this section, the focus is to describe the main findings of the 11 papers that investigated raw/torrefied biomass flowability and extract key information about torrefaction conditions, type of bulk solid, flowability methods employed, and results interpretation by authors. A chronological order is followed, when possible. The flowability data is summarized in Table 1, along with the biomass type, torrefaction temperature and residence time, type of torrefaction technology and unit scale, as well as other characterization methods used in each paper for obtaining chemical, physical, bulk, and thermal properties.

		Т	Δt	HR	CCI	α	β	FFC ^a	FFC ^b	FFC ^c	FFC ^d	Other information
Authors	Biomass	(°C)	(h)	(-)	(%)	(°)	(°)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	
Conag et al.	sugarcane bagasse (SB)	0	0	1.49	33.00							- Fixed bed torrefaction at bench scale (9g of
$(2017)^{82}$		250	0	1.44	30.33							material).
		250	0.25	1.42	29.33							- Other tests performed: proximate analysis, calorific value, particle size, bulk density,
		250	0.5	1.32	24.00							combustion indices, and equilibrium moisture.
		250	0.75	1.32	24.00							
		250	1	1.25	19.67							
		250	1.25	1.33	24.67							
		300	0	1.44	30.33							
		300	0.25	1.32	24.00							
		300	0.5	1.31	23.67							
		300	0.75	1.37	27.00							
		300	1	1.39	28.00							
		300	1.25	1.35	25.67							
		350	0	1.35	25.67							
		350	0.25	1.27	21.33							
		350	0.5	1.30	23.00							

Table 1. Flowability indices for the selected papers, consisting of Hausner Ratio (HR), Carr's Compressibility Index (CCI), static repose angle (α) , dynamic repose angle (β) , and flow function (FFC) at different pre-consolidation loads.

		350	0.75	1.35	26.00		
		350	1	1 41	29.00		
		350	1	1.41	29.00		
		350	1.25	1.45	31.00		
Rago et al.	waste textile fiber (WTF)	0	0	1.34	25.22		- Fixed bed torrefaction at bench-scale (65g).
(2018) ⁸³		225	1	1.22	17.82		- Other tests performed: proximate and ultimate
		250	1	1.20	16.92		bulk density.
		275	1	1.10	8.85		
		300	1	1.08	7.77		
		225	3	1.26	20.59		
		250	3	1.25	19.81		
		275	3	1.11	10.06		
		300	3	1.04	3.94		
Xu et al.	fine soybean straw (SB)	0	0			60.9	- Fixed bed torrefaction at bench-scale.
(2019) ⁸⁴		300	0.75			55.3	- Other tests performed: proximate analysis, SEM,
	coarse soybean straw (SB)	0	0			61.2	particle size, PSD, bulk density, and shape factor.
		300	0.75			55.3	
	fine corn straw (CS)	0	0			61.4	
		300	0.75			59.3	
	coarse corn straw (CS)	0	0			54.8	
		300	0.75			54.2	

	fine rice straw (RS)	0	0			64.9	
		300	0.75			56.8	
	accuracy rices at many (DS)	0	0			70.0	
	coarse nee straw (RS)	0	0			70.0	
		300	0.75			68.2	
	fine rice husk (RH)	0	0			44.3	
		300	0.75			43.6	
	coarse rice husk (RH)	0	0			44.7	
		300	0.75			43.9	
Singh et al.	pigeon pea stalk (PPS)	0	0	1.48	32.21		- Fixed bed torrefaction at bench-scale (6g).
(2019) ⁸⁵		225	0.25	1.49	32.97		- Other tests performed: proximate and ultimate
		225	0.5	1.46	31.55		analyses, calorific value, FTIR, SEM, particle size, bulk density, combustion indices, and equilibrium
		225	0.75	1.44	30.65		moisture.
		250	0.25	1.39	27.93		
		250	0.5	1.38	27.77		
		250	0.75	1.38	27.66		
		275	0.25	1.38	27.75		
		275	0.5	1.37	27.31		
		275	0.75	1.36	26.51		
Singh et al.	gum arabic wood (GAW)	0	0	1.29	22.48		- Fixed bed torrefaction at bench-scale (8g).
(2019) ³³		252	1	1.21	17.35		- Other tests performed like previous work ⁸⁵

Singh et al.	eucalyptus wood (EW)	0	0	1.44	30.43					- Fixed bed torrefaction at bench-scale (10g).	
(2020) ⁸⁶		220	0.33	1.35	26.20					- Other tests performed: proximate and elemental	
		220	0.67	1.30	23.26					analysis, calorific value, TGA, FTIR, XRD, BET, SEM, particle size, bulk density, particle density,	
		220	1	1.26	20.93					combustion indices, and equilibrium moisture.	
		250	0.33	1.23	18.43						
		250	0.67	1.20	16.56						
		250	1	1.23	18.54						
		280	0.33	1.21	17.36						
		280	0.67	1.24	19.24						
		280	1	1.20	16.95						
Singh et al.	gum arabic wood (GAW)	0	0	1.29	22.85	39.36				- Fixed bed torrefaction at bench-scale.	
(2020) ⁸⁷		220	0.67	1.27	21.44	38.79				- Other tests performed like previous work ⁸⁶ except for XRD BET, but including contact angle, and	
		250	0.67	1.21	17.35	36.15				ICP-MS.	
		280	0.67	1.18	15.86	32.51					
Pachon-	poplar wood (PW)	0	0				5.2	4.6	3.9	- Fixed bed torrefaction at bench-scale (15g).	
$(2019)^{88}$		220	1				5	4.4	4.2	- Other tests performed: PSD, shape factor, and	
		220	5				4.8	4.9	4.1	buik density.	
		250	1				5.3	5	5.1		
		250	5				6.9	6	6.3		
		280	1				6.6	6.3	5.7		

		280	5			9.2	9.4		8.5	
	spruce wood (SW)	0	0			3.5	3.9		3	
		220	1			3.7	3.8		3.4	
		220	5			4.9	4.5		4.1	
		250	1			4.7	4.8		4.2	
		250	5			6.5	7.4		6.2	
		280	1			6	6.2		6.3	
		280	5			5.8	8.4		11	
Pachon-	coarse poplar wood (PW)	0	0		146.3	7.0	10.0		8.6	- Fixed bed torrefaction at bench-scale (450g).
$(2020)^{16}$		240	1		148.2	9.3	7.3		5.4	- Other tests performed like the previous work $^{\rm 88}$
		280	1		153.3	10.4	6.0		4.9	
	fine poplar wood (PW)	0	0		149.1	5.6	5.8		6.0	
		240	1		146.2	4.6	4.3		4.1	
		280	1		151.1	5.8	4.6		4.1	
Thevenon et al.	mix of spruce/pine wood	0	0		60	5	14.7	5.9	10	- Six-hearth furnace for torrefaction at pilot-scale
(2021)	(SPW)	250	0.92		61	9.6	16.4	18.7	17.3	(420kg).
										- Other tests performed: elemental analysis, calorific value, PSD, and shape factor.
Rajaonarivony	wheat straw (WS)	0	0	36.10						- Continuous screw reactor for torrefaction at pilot
et al. (2023)		280	0.17	32.10						biochemical composition, AFM, TGA, NMR, calorific value, PSD, and shape factor.

522 Note: FFC^a was measured at pre-consolidation loads of 2-2.7 kPa, FFC^b at 5-5.3 kPa, FFC^c at 7.9 kPa, and FFC^d at 10-10.5 kPa.

Conag et al.⁸² investigated the torrefaction of sugar cane bagasse of 0.56 mm using about 523 9 g of material in a fixed bed reactor at different temperatures (*i.e.*, 250°C, 300°C, and 350°C) 524 and residence times (i.e., 15, 30, 45, 60, and 75 min) under minimized oxidative atmosphere. 525 The authors evaluated the flowability via HR and CCI, indicating that the torrefied biomass had 526 527 relatively lower indices than the raw biomass, meaning better flowability but also a worse compaction for these samples. The qualitative indication for the raw sample was "very poor" 528 529 and "passable" for the torrefied powder. Another finding was that a torrefaction time beyond 60 min did not further improve the fuel characteristics of torrefied biomass, in terms of energy 530 density and high heating value. 531

Rago et al.⁸³ performed the torrefaction of waste textile fibers of about 9 mm mesh size 532 533 at different temperatures (i.e., 225°C, 250°C, 275°C, and 300°C) for 1 and 3 h in a batch reactor with about 65 g of material. The flowability was assessed via the Hausner ratio and 534 compressibility index, generally showing a better flowability as the torrefaction severity (i.e., 535 higher temperature and/or higher treatment time) was increased. The initial fibers were highly 536 fibrous and fluffy, corresponding to the highest bulk density compared to the torrefied material, 537 to which the characteristics of a more powdery, less fluffy, and rather porous material were 538 attributed. 539

Xu et al.⁸⁴ evaluated the flowability of four milled biomass powders (soybean straw, corn 540 straw, rice straw, rice husk) before and after torrefaction in a lab-scale fixed bed reactor 541 542 operated at 300°C for 45 min (amount of produced powder not indicated in the paper). The flowability was assessed via static angle of repose (fixed bed method) for two sieve size ranges 543 of 250-380 µm and 380-550 µm. Overall, better flowability was observed for some torrefied 544 545 samples (soybean and rice straws), particularly for the finer particles, while for others (rice husk, corn straw) the angle of repose remained almost identical even with the torrefaction 546 pretreatment. Moreover, although torrefaction can help in improving the flowability, it cannot 547

change the relative relationship between the flowability of different biomass powders. Finally, through compressibility tests on raw milled biomass powders, the authors stated that the Hausner ratio/compressibility index cannot always characterize their flowability compared to the angle of repose, as a consequence of biomass nature (*i.e.*, specific internal structures, flexibility, and shape). Note that the compressibility tests were not evaluated for the torrefied sample.

Singh *et al.*⁸⁵ investigated the dry torrefaction of pigeon pea stalks of sieve sizes between 554 0.7 and 1.2 mm under different temperatures (i.e., 225°C, 250°C, and 275°C) and residence 555 times (*i.e.*, 15, 30, and 45 min) using samples of about 6 g in a batch furnace. The authors 556 557 verified a decrease in the solid yield with increasing torrefaction severity, which was defined 558 by higher residence times and temperatures in the reactor. The flowability assessed via HR and CCI was improved by increasing the torrefaction severity, being classified as "very poor" for 559 the raw sample and "poor" for the condition of 275°C and 45 min. Nevertheless, the authors 560 state that a low temperature of 225°C at any of tested residence times had no effects for 561 562 flowability improvement. Finally, the torrefied biomass showed a higher internal porosity and lower bulk density (about 18% lower than raw biomass), tended to absorb less water, and had 563 reduced structural strength with more surface cracks that in turn helps in reducing crushing and 564 565 compaction power consumption.

In a following paper, Singh *et al.*⁸⁶ evaluated the torrefaction of 8g eucalyptus wood of sieve sizes between 0.7 and 1.2 mm using the same reactor setup at similar temperatures (*i.e.*, 220°C, 250°C, and 280°C) and residence times (*i.e.*, 20, 40, and 60 min). Similar conclusions were drawn from the experiments, consisting of an improvement of the flowability via HR and CCI as the torrefaction severity was increased. At the limits, the raw sample presented a "poor" flowability that was transformed into "fair" for the sample treated at 280°C and 60 min.

Singh et al.³³ experimentally evaluated the dry torrefaction in a fixed bed reactor, by using 572 573 about 10g of gum Arabic wood powders in each test, with a sieve size from 0.7 to 1.2 mm. They evaluated various conditions for torrefaction temperature (from 220°C to 280°C), residence 574 time (from 20 to 60 min) and heating rate (from 5°C to 15°C/min), aiming at obtaining optimum 575 conditions for maximization of torrefied biomass high heat value and energy yield through 576 statistical Response Surface Methodology (RSM). The flowability was evaluated via HR and 577 578 CCI for the raw and torrefied sample of highest yield (i.e., 252°C, 60 min, and 5°C/min), showing an improvement of flowability from "fair" to "good", respectively. 579

In a following paper, Singh et al.⁸⁷ evaluated the torrefaction of gum Arabic wood at 580 similar residence times (i.e., 20, 40, and 60 min) and temperatures (i.e., 220°C, 250°C, and 581 582 280°C), obtaining the optimum tradeoff between higher heating value and energy yield for 250°C and 40 min. The flowability was evaluated via static angle of repose, HR and CCI for 583 the raw sample and three other torrefied ones at 40 min and all temperatures. There was a 584 general improvement in the flowability indices, from the raw sample being classified as 585 "passable" and the torrefied at the highest temperature as "good". It is worth mentioning that 586 the qualitative classification among different indices did not match perfectly, which is a 587 common finding in the literature and agrees with the rationale from Section 3.2.1, illustrating 588 589 that different flowability indices describe the flow behavior at different bulk flow conditions. Also noteworthy is the use of advanced physicochemical characterization techniques in these 590 last two studies, such as FTIR, XRD, BET, and ICP-MS. 591

Pachón-Morales *et al.*⁸⁸ investigated the torrefaction of poplar and spruce wood chips of 1.5 mm of particle diameter at three temperatures (*i.e.*, 220°C, 250°C, and 280°C) and two residence times (*i.e.*, 1 and 5 h) in a batch furnace containing about 15 g of material. Under similar torrefaction intensities, Spruce presented higher formation of fines (particles below 100 μ m) compared to poplar, which was attributed to distinct anatomical structures for the two

biomasses that lead to different fracture pathways. Besides, a gradual shifting of size and shape 597 598 distributions towards finer and rounder particles was verified when increasing the torrefaction intensity. The flowability for all powders was evaluated with the Schulze ring shear tester at 599 consolidations of 2, 5, and 10 kPa. A significant improvement of the flowability was verified 600 as the torrefaction intensity was increased, from "cohesive" for the raw samples to nearly "free 601 flowing" for the condition of 280°C during 5 h. Moreover, the authors provided a 602 comprehensive discussion to state that the improvement of flowability was mostly related to 603 the rounder shape and sharper surface of torrefied biomass, resulting from a loss of resilience 604 of the fibrous structure of raw wood due to torrefaction, and not by the changes in the particle 605 606 size or size span.

In a following study, Pachón-Morales et al.¹⁶ focused on the torrefaction of poplar wood 607 chips at 240°C and 280°C for 1 h in a batch furnace using samples of about 450 g. After grinding 608 and sieving, the authors evaluated the flowability of raw and torrefied powders of two different 609 particle-size distributions through techniques of shear cell and rotating drum, representatives of 610 compacted and free-surface stress states, respectively. Overall, intense torrefaction improved 611 the flow behavior of powders, both under free-surface and consolidated conditions. Fine, mildly 612 torrefied powders showed the worst flow behavior, whereas the intensively torrefied coarse 613 614 sample has the best flowability. Note that for some conditions the flowability of raw biomasses was better than the corresponding torrefied sample, indicating potentially that this pretreatment 615 does not always improve the flow behavior. This highlights the need for systematically 616 617 measuring the flow properties to draw best conclusions for ease handling and storage operations. 618

Thevenon *et al.*⁸⁹ investigated the effect of torrefaction at pilot scale for wood chips, consisting of a mix of 70% spruce and 30% pine, at the temperature of 250°C and residence time of 55 min. The raw sample contained a moisture content of 52% wet basis, which was

initially dried in a pilot scale belt dryer to about 18% wet basis, and subsequently torrefied in a 622 continuous vertical six-hearth furnace (10 m in height and 1.82 m in diameter) to produce 420 623 kg of torrefied wood. Both raw and torrefied wood chips were ground with a knife mill 624 generating powders samples with mean sieve size of 662 and 264 µm, respectively. Torrefaction 625 not only reduced the grinding energy costs but also decreased by half the particle diameter, 626 which is related with the weakening of the particle structure due to torrefaction. The flowability 627 was evaluated with a rotating drum and Schulze shear cell representing bulk conditions of loose-628 dynamic and consolidated-static states, respectively. With respect to the dynamic avalanche 629 angle, the raw and torrefied samples presented similar mean values of 60° and 61°, respectively, 630 631 however, the first had a pronounced erratic flow behavior evidenced by standard deviation of 632 38° , while the flow for the torrefied sample was more homogeneous with a deviation of 8° . Concerning the shear tests, the raw sample was classified as a "easy-flowing" material, while 633 the torrefied was "free-flowing", with the flowability change majorly attributed to the 634 smoothing of particle surfaces as the aspect ratio of the particles remained almost stable in their 635 work. Overall, the authors concluded that there was an improvement in the flowability, under 636 both loose and consolidated states, due to the torrefaction treatment. 637

Rajaonarivony et al.⁹⁰ performed the torrefaction of wheat straw in a pilot scale screw 638 639 reactor at 220°C and 280°C, feed rate of 2.92 kg/h, and residence time of 10 min. Torrefied and non-torrefied biomass were ground in a stirred ball mill to obtain fine powders in the range of 640 3 to 120 µm. Torrefaction at the low temperature of 220°C did not result in significant changes 641 642 neither in biomass physicochemical and structural properties nor in their grindability. Nevertheless, at 280°C there was 50% better grindability compared with the raw sample, but 643 also with higher tendency for agglomeration of fines, forming hard agglomerates in the range 644 of 200-600 µm. The agglomeration phenomena originated by torrefaction was attributed to 645 modifications of particle surface properties that make certain chemical groups more accessible 646

to form stronger interactions with others, but it requires further investigation. The flowability 647 was evaluated through compressibility index with applied pressure of 15 kPa and with FT4 648 rheometer for cohesion measurement. Overall, the flowability was improved from "very poor" 649 for the raw sample to "poor" for the torrefied powder at 280°C, while the cohesion was also 650 reduced by half in the latter. Torrefaction process makes straw particles more brittle, which 651 decreases their deformability and compressibility of the powder. Moreover, the authors state 652 that even a small improvement of the compressibility index (measured at quasi-static 653 conditions) would represent huge gains on powder handling as they can be associated with 654 significantly less mechanical forces to initiate the movement of particles. Besides, the cohesion 655 656 reduction in the torrefied powder was interestingly associated with the degradation of 657 arabinoxylans, a non-cellulosic component responsible for interparticle interactions of cohesive 658 nature.

659

660 3.3.3 Grouped flowability data and results discussion

In this section, the flowability data gathered in Table 1 are discussed in more detail to 661 reveal the current status of the literature and visualize the gaps that need future studies. The 662 flowability indices considered were the HR, CCI, α , β , and FFC at different pre-consolidation 663 loads, for which an overview was done in Section 3.3.1. Dispersion plots were produced for 664 665 each flowability index as a function of the investigated biomasses, a total of 13 feedstocks. In 666 Figure 5, the data points are colored based on the 11 literature references for flowability, while no occurrence of data points for a given biomass means that it has not been characterized with 667 the corresponding flowability technique. At the right axis, the commonly used flowability 668 classifications from the literature were applied for HR⁵², CCI⁵³, α^{76} , and FFC⁶⁷. Note that a 669 classification for β is not yet available in the literature, as detailed in Section 3.3.1. 670











676
677Figure 5. Flowability indices as a function of different investigated biomass in the literature:
a) HR, b) CCI, c) α d) β , and e) FFC. The points are colored based on the literature reference.
No occurrence of data points for a given biomass means that it has not been characterized
with the corresponding technique.681

Overall, the classical indices derived from powder bed compaction, HR, and CCI, were 682 683 those mostly used to assess raw and torrefied biomass flowability. Data dispersion in Figures 684 5a and 5b revealed similar trends for both indices including similar flowability classification, as expected, since both are based on the same experimental unit and raw data. In total, 5 685 feedstocks were characterized via HR with only one (*i.e.*, gum arabic wood) being evaluated 686 by two different studies. Similarly, for the CCI, 6 feedstocks were assessed with only gum 687 arabic wood being evaluated by two papers. Depending on the torrefaction treatment severity 688 and feedstock, HR ranged from 1.10 (excellent flowability) to 1.49 (very poor). Similarly, CCI 689 690 ranged from 3.9% (excellent) to 36.1% (very poor).

In Figure 5c, the static angle of repose was measured for 5 feedstocks in two literature papers, highlighting a considerable variation of flowability classification, from 32.5° (good flowability) to 70° (very poor), depending on the biomass sample and pre-treatment intensity. It is worth noting that both papers used different techniques to measure the angle of repose, consisting of fixed diameter and fixed height, which makes a direct comparison difficult and establishes a warning for future studies. A similar comment can be attributed to Figure 5d, in which only two papers considered the rotating drum technique, and yet the criteria used for measuring the dynamic angle of repose was different among them, which explains the scattered data and prevents comparison of results.

In Figure 5e, shear cells were used to assess the flowability of raw and torrefied wood 700 powders in three papers, for which the FFC (at a pre-consolidation load around 5kPa) ranged 701 702 from 3.8 (easy-flowing) to 16.4 (free-flowing). The data trends for FFC under different 703 consolidation loads can be observed in Table S3 (Supplementary Information). One of the 704 advantages to use of shear cells for flowability classification is that the parameters for silo design, such as angles of internal friction and particle wall, can be made available from the 705 706 same set of experiments. Coincidently, all papers used the Schulze ring shear tester for the 707 flowability data from Figure 5e; hence, it would be interesting in the future to compare these results with other commercial implementations of shear cells available in the literature. An 708 illustration for this comparison was done previously for raw biomass.⁴⁹ 709

Based on the previous flowability dataset (Table 1 and Fig. 5) and the overview of current works associated with biomass torrefaction (Section 3.3.2), we found the following gaps and potential fields for future work:

None of the studies on biomass torrefaction provided a complete picture of flowability
using all available techniques, corresponding to different bulk flow conditions. In
addition, coupling this with a full characterization of physicochemical, thermal, and
bulk properties and techno-economic feasibility studies is pressing to improve the
performance of thermochemical processes and the circular economy of biomass and

biomass residues. Noteworthy is the use of advanced characterization techniques thatwere employed in only 3 out of 11 works (see Table 1 for details).

The comparison of results between the 11 studies was challenging as the flowability 720 measurement techniques were not always the same, nor were the torrefaction 721 conditions or the biomass type (which also implies quite different physicochemical 722 and bulk properties: size, shape, surface roughness, bulk density, etc.). Consequently, 723 current literature results are difficult to be applied elsewhere. Further works are 724 needed, under similar flowability testing conditions and under a determined range of 725 biomass properties, in order to obtain more sound and broad conclusions that allow 726 727 for the establishment of standardized protocols for handling heterogeneous 728 feedstocks, such as raw/torrefied biomass, at different process scales.

None of the studies investigated the effect of electrostatic forces or evaluated in-depth 729 _ interlocking effects or cohesion induced by moisture absorption, which prevents 730 further discussions in this regard. The current focus of work was to report an 731 improvement or not in the flowability, for very specific combinations of a given 732 biomass and torrefaction condition. Further works centered on raw/torrefied biomass 733 flowability assessment under higher intensity of electrostatic, cohesive & interlocking 734 735 forces would be useful, not only for the bulk solids handling research field but also for more assertive applications with heterogeneous feedstocks. 736

Most of the studies in the literature (9 out of 11) were based on small-bench torrefaction units, producing only a few grams of torrefied biomass. This is generally a limiting amount of material for complete assessment of flowability at different bulk conditions, as well as to evaluate other important handling aspects at industrial scale, such as bulk solid segregation, quality of fluidization, and so on. Thus, we suggest

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this as a scope for future work aiming at improving the success of biomass torrefaction at different unit scales.

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745 3.3.4 Description of selected papers for fluidization

Rousset et al.91 investigated the fluidization characteristics of wood chips of three size 746 distributions, corresponding to raw and torrefied biomass at 200°C and 15 min. Overall, a 747 748 higher pressure drop was observed for the raw biomass samples at the same gas velocity, which was attributed to the weakening of the torrefied sample. In a subsequent work, Rousset et al.⁹² 749 750 evaluated the grindability by fluidization of three wood chips samples with different size distributions, before and after torrefaction for 15 min at 210°C, 240°C, and 270°C. The 751 752 fluidization tests were performed with 450 g of material and for 20 min at an increasing gas velocity up to 3 m/s. With respect to the raw samples, only big particles higher than 1.6 mm 753 showed a reduction in size by fluidization. On the other hand, torrefaction had a significant 754 755 impact on particle grindability by fluidization for all sizes from 0.28 to 1.6 mm. The size reduction was also correlated with the torrefaction severity, with higher treatment temperatures 756 originating finer particles. Nevertheless, further studies are needed in this field to show the pros 757 758 and cons of biomass torrefaction for fluidized bed technologies, particularly by studying more complicated biomass residues (e.g., refuse-derived fuel or municipal waste) and by 759 investigating other important phenomena in fluidization, such as gas-solid contacting, particle 760 segregation, particle attrition, and particle entrainment. 761

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763 3.4 Current applications of torrefied biomass and future perspectives

Not all retrieved studies on the flowability and fluidization of torrefied biomasshighlighted the potential applications of their findings. Most of these studies primarily focused

on enhancing the energy potential of biomass. Proper physical and bulk characterization is 766 767 essential to improve the handling and stability of torrefied biomass, an important step to scale up the experiments to field applications. Additionally, there are environmental benefits of 768 torrefied biomass, including soil amendments and remediation⁹³, but the potential risks and 769 770 limitations of both the torrefaction process and torrefied biomass itself should also be explored. 771 The substitution of coal and other fossil fuels with torrefied biomass presents a compelling alternative for mitigating the environmental impacts associated with energy 772 production. Co-firing torrefied biomass alongside coal, for example, has been shown to 773 significantly decrease greenhouse gas emissions from power plants.⁹⁴ Torrefied biomass 774 typically exhibits higher heating values and calorific potentials than those of raw biomass,⁹⁵ 775 making it a more efficient energy source. This enhancement in energy density not only 776 improves combustion efficiency but also expands the range of applications for biomass-derived 777 778 fuels in various industrial processes, which can contribute as a solution in transitioning towards cleaner energy systems. In addition, biomass torrefaction offers an alternative method for 779 repurposing agricultural residues, such as the energy densification of sugarcane bagasse, as 780 demonstrated in the study by Conag et al.⁸², and the improvements in biomass powder 781 flowability for different biomasses (soybean straw, corn straw, rice straw, and rice husk), as 782 explored by Xu *et al.*⁸⁴. 783

Torrefied biomass offers several advantages over raw biomass, particularly in terms of transportation, storage, and densification.⁹⁶ Due to its reduced moisture content and improved bulk and flow properties resulting from the torrefaction process, such as increased energy density and enhanced grindability, torrefied biomass exhibits higher stability during longdistance transportation. This stability minimizes the risk of particle degradation and ensures consistent quality upon arrival at its destination, making it more economically viable and practical for large-scale energy production facilities. The densification of torrefied biomass into pellets or briquettes becomes more efficient and cost-effective, further streamlining handling and storage processes. These characteristics improve logistical efficiency and facilitate the integration of biomass-based fuels into existing energy infrastructure, promoting sustainable energy solutions with reduced environmental impact. In addition, the evaluation of torrefaction pre-treatment on pellet durability with and without binders is also an important topic for efficient feeding of these materials to reactors that needs further investigation, particularly to feed more materials while avoiding issues of pellet breakage or segregation.⁹⁷

The application of torrefied biomass can significantly enhance soil properties, offering 798 benefits such as increased water-holding capacity and improved nutrient availability.^{93,98} While 799 torrefaction increases the hydrophobicity of biomass, water-holding capacity is enhanced due 800 801 to the formation of a porous structure of micro- and mesopores (interporosity) and within the torrefied biomass particles (intraporosity)^{99,100}. However, as explored by Edeh and Mašek¹⁰¹ 802 biochar hydrophobicity increases with decreasing particle size, leading to a reduction in water 803 retention capacity; they recommend using hydrophilic biochars with high intraporosity to 804 805 enhance water retention in coarse soils. In this sense, torrefied biomass can reduce hydraulic conductivity, decrease water losses due to evaporation, and make water more available for plant 806 uptake¹⁰². This enhanced water retention capability not only reduces irrigation needs but also 807 promotes better moisture management¹⁰⁰, particularly in arid or drought-prone regions. 808

Torrefied biomass releases nutrients slowly over time as it decomposes, providing a steady supply of essential elements like nitrogen, phosphorus, and potassium to support plant growth.⁹² These nutrients act as natural fertilizers, enhancing soil fertility and productivity without the immediate risk of leaching or runoff, thereby contributing to sustainable agricultural practices. In contaminated sites, torrefied biomass can be a potential cost-effective adsorbent for the retention and sorption of contaminants.^{103,104} Its ability to effectively bind pollutants makes it promising for the remediation and reuse of organic wastes and residues. Despite these advantages, the scalability of these applications requires thorough investigation, as well as an
understanding of the long-term effects of torrefied biomass application in soils. Potential
desorption of contaminants over time can hinder the environmental sustainability and
effectiveness of remediation strategies. Further research is needed to explore these aspects,
ensuring the proper application of torrefied biomass in environmental remediation.

The utilization of torrefied biomass, while offering several environmental benefits, also 821 presents potential risks that require critical assessment. The selection of the feedstock for 822 producing the torrefied biomass should consider location factors and logistics, considering 823 biomass residues largely produced and available near the processing units. The energy input 824 825 required for the torrefaction process should be considered for assessing the carbon savings 826 achieved during combustion. Improper disposal or land application of ash could lead to soil contamination and nutrient imbalances, impacting local ecosystems and agricultural 827 productivity. Furthermore, the long-term impacts of torrefied biomass application in soil 828 remediation and agriculture still need further research, as the torrefied biomass itself can be 829 toxic for several organisms.¹⁰⁵ 830

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832 4 Final considerations

From this systematic review on biomass torrefaction, it was observed that most papers focused on determining the chemical and thermal properties of raw and torrefied biomass (62%) to maximize its energy density and solids yield. In contrast, only some studies (8%) presented a complete characterization of physical and bulk properties, and less than 2% investigated flowability or fluidization characteristics for the raw and torrefied biomass, which is critical for the reliable operation of processes at the pilot to industrial scales. This highlights the need for future research on the flowability of raw and torrefied biomass, with the goal of obtaining more sound and broad conclusions for the flow behavior of such heterogeneous materials,
culminating in the development of standardized protocols to improve biomass handling and
processing at an industrial scale. Some considerations for future studies are summarized below:
No paper has performed a complete characterization of raw and torrefied biomass
encompassing physicochemical, thermal, bulk, and flow properties, a surprising feature
that should be covered in future studies.

Most experimental works were based on the torrefaction of limited amounts of biomass, 846 on the order of a few grams, which can be limiting for extrapolation or interpretation of 847 flowability results to industrial scale process conditions, particularly because at this 848 849 latter scale other bulk solids challenges that can prevent powder flow may arise, such 850 as more pronounced powder segregation, effect of powder bed resistances, effect of pipeline defects and wear, etc. Therefore, future studies should assess bulk and flow 851 properties from large-scale torrefaction units and compare them with small-scale ones. 852 Concerning the flowability characterization, current works focused more on simple 853 classical methods based on powder compressibility or static angle of repose, while very 854 few employed shear cells or rotating drums. Moreover, none among the (few) studies 855 on biomass torrefaction provided a full picture of flowability characterization using all 856 857 the available techniques. Thus, future studies could cross-check different flowability techniques for a range of raw and torrefied biomass and verify the reproducibility of 858 results by using different equipment brands of a similar measurement technique. 859

Currently, the studies focused more on the characterization of wood and agro-industrial
biomass wastes, however, in the future more heterogeneous and complex wastes, such
as municipal wastes or refuse-derived fuels, should be investigated concerning
chemical, physical, bulk, and flow properties, aiming at proposing successful solutions
for thermochemical valorization of such materials.

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866 The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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872 **Biographies**

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900 Authors contributions

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Pretti Ogura: Methodology, Formal analysis, Investigation, Writing – Original draft,
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Reviewing and Editing; Nicholas Slongo Canabarro: Conceptualization, Methodology,
Formal analysis, Investigation, Writing – Original draft, Reviewing and Editing.

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909 Abbreviations

910 α : static angle of repose; β : angle of repose; AFM: atomic force measurement; ASTM: American Society for Testing and Materials; AWL: Anhydrous Weight Loss; CCI: Carr's 911 912 compressibility index; CHNS/O: carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen, sulfur, and oxygen ratio; CT: computed tomography; FFC: flow function coefficient; FTIR: Fourier Transform Infrared 913 Spectroscopy analysis; NMR: nuclear magnetic resonance; H/C: hydrogen/carbon ratio; HR: 914 Hausner ratio; ICP-MS: inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometer O/C: oxygen/carbon 915 ratio; PRISMA: Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses; RSM: 916 Response Surface Methodology; SAXS: X-ray-based synchrotron-based scattering; SEM: 917 scanning electron microscopy; TGA: Thermogravimetric analysis; XPS: X-ray Photoelectron 918 Spectroscopy; XRD: X-ray diffraction analysis; XRF: X-ray fluorescence. 919

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